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5 April 1990

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GENERAL ASSEMBLY
Forty-fifth session
Items 29, 71 and 144 of
the preliminary list*
THE SITUATION IN AFGHANISTAN AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE AND SECURITY
REVIEW OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE DECLARATION ON THE STRENGTHENING OF INTERNATIONAL SECURITY
PEACEFUL SETTLEMENT OF DISPUTES BETWEEN STATES

SECURITY COUNCIL
Forty-fifth year

Letter dated 4 April 1990 from the Permanent Representative of Afghanistan to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General

I have the honour to transmit to you a message from His Excellency Mr. Abdul Wakil, Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Afghanistan, addressed to you (see annex).

I have further the honour to request that the text of the present letter and its annex be circulated as an official document of the General Assembly, under items 29, 71 and 144 of the preliminary list, and of the Security Council.

(Signed) Noor Ahmad NOOR
Ambassador
Permanent Representative

* A/45/50.

ANNEX

Letter dated 4 April 1990 from the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Afghanistan to the Secretary-General

The Geneva Agreements, which established a firm legal basis for the political and peaceful solution of the situation relating to Afghanistan, are a significant and important achievement of the United Nations system that entered into force 20 months ago. The full realization of the spirit and letter of these international agreements - in which you played a prominent role, could have put a peaceful end to one of the longest and most bloody regional conflicts, contributing positively to the qualitative improvement of the international atmosphere in general.

On the basis of the provisions of the Geneva Agreements and concurrent to their entry into force, the United Nations Good Offices Mission in Afghanistan and Pakistan (UNGOMAP) started its activities. UNGOMAP was duty-bound to supervise the constant and sincere realization of the spirit and letter of the Geneva Agreements by the contracting parties, regularly reporting to you on the outcome of its investigation and on its conclusions. In the opinion of the Government of the Republic of Afghanistan, the duties and mandate of UNGOMAP regarding assessment of the realization of the Geneva Agreements and impressing upon Pakistan compliance with, and respect to, obligations deriving from the said Agreements, have not been completed because, in spite of the complete withdrawal of Soviet troops from the Republic of Afghanistan in accordance with the Geneva Agreements, all the sources and basic foundations of interference and open armed aggression against Afghanistan continue to exist and have even acquired new and dangerous dimensions.

In open violation of the Geneva Agreements, none of the military training centres of the extremists and their political and cultural offices on the territory of Pakistan have been closed. Various obstacles are being raised against the voluntary and honourable return of Afghan refugees to their homeland. So far, Pakistan has committed 9,050 cases of violation of the Geneva Agreements, which have been brought to your attention through 1,193 notes lodged with the UNGOMAP. In fact, only one component part of the Geneva Agreements, i.e., the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Afghanistan, has been implemented, while two other component parts, cessation of interference and intervention and the return of refugees continue to remain unimplemented.

It was on the basis of the realization of this fact that General Assembly resolution 44/15 of 1 November 1989 emphasized the need for the full implementation of the Geneva Agreements and, in paragraph 11, put special stress on the continuation of the work of UNGOMAP in full accordance with the Geneva Agreements. Efforts made by the United States of America and Pakistan, which are trying to limit the Geneva Agreements to the withdrawal of foreign troops from Afghanistan alone and to prevent the continuation of the work of UNGOMAP, in contradiction to the said Agreements and in spite of the disagreement of the Government of the Republic of Afghanistan that enjoys an exceptional legal position vis-à-vis the Geneva Agreements, can not in any case be justified. We firmly believe that only

the full implementation of all the provisions of the Geneva Agreements in their totality could ensure peace and stability in Afghanistan and in this strategic area of the world.

The creation of the Office of the Secretary-General in Afghanistan and Pakistan, whose duties and mandate has not been yet clarified, and the dismantling of the UNGOMAP, coincides with a time when vast foreign armed provocations and aggressions against the national sovereignty and territorial integrity of Afghanistan, as a full and equal member of the United Nations Organization, have acquired new and dangerous forms. The recent futile and aborted attempt of Pakistan's Inter-service Intelligence Directorate (ISI) for waging a coup against the Government of Afghanistan is an outstanding example of such efforts which stand in total contradiction to the spirit and letter of the Geneva Agreements and the Charter of the United Nations.

The Government of Afghanistan hopes that the UNGOMAP mechanism will continue its work on the basis of the Geneva Agreements, which enjoy solid political and legal validity, and will appropriately supervise the implementation of the Geneva Agreements by all the sides concerned, investigate any violations and keep you informed on the development of the situation. The Government of Afghanistan has fully supported and will continue to support the endeavours of the United Nations and your efforts toward the successful accomplishment of your mandate for realizing a political, peaceful solution of the problems in and around Afghanistan.

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General Assembly Security Council

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5 April 1990

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GENERAL ASSEMBLY
Forty-fifth session
Items 94, 100, 104, 113 and 142
of the preliminary list*
ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF
RACIAL DISCRIMINATION
IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CONVENTION
ON THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD
ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF
DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN
ENHANCING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF
THE PRINCIPLE OF PERIODIC AND
GENUINE ELECTIONS
DEVELOPMENT AND STRENGTHENING
OF GOOD-NEIGHBOURLINESS
BETWEEN STATES

SECURITY COUNCIL
Forty-fifth year

Letter dated 4 April 1990 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of Israel to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General

I have been instructed by my Government to draw your attention to the attached extract from Country Reports on Human Rights Practices For 1989, published by the Department of State of the United States of America, which contains information on the situation concerning human rights in Senegal. I have underlined passages of special relevance (see annex).

In view of the importance of this information, I have the honour to request that the text of the present letter and its annex be issued as an official document of the General Assembly, under items 94, 100, 104, 113 and 142 of the preliminary list, and of the Security Council.

(Signed) Johanan BEIN
Ambassador
Acting Permanent Representative

* A/45/50.

ANNEX*

101st Congress
2d Session

JOINT COMMITTEE PRINT

COUNTRY REPORTS ON HUMAN RIGHTS PRACTICES FOR 1989

REPORT

SUBMITTED TO THE

COMMITTEE ON FOREIGN AFFAIRS
HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

AND THE

COMMITTEE ON FOREIGN RELATIONS
U.S. SENATE

BY THE

DEPARTMENT OF STATE

IN ACCORDANCE WITH SECTIONS 116(d) AND 502B(b) OF THE FOREIGN ASSISTANCE ACT OF 1961, AS AMENDED

FEBRUARY 1990

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* Underlining has been added by the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of Israel to the United Nations.

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SENEGAL

Senegal is a republic with an elected president, unicameral legislature, and governmental institutions modeled on French lines. Although Senegal has 17 legal political parties, the Socialist Party has dominated the political scene and controlled the Government since independence from France in 1960. Prime Minister Abdou Diouf automatically succeeded the retiring President Leopold Senghor in January 1981. Diouf was elected President in his own right in the regularly scheduled elections 2 years later, and his Socialist Party won 111 of 120 National Assembly seats. In the hotly contested presidential elections of February 1988 (the results of which continue to be disputed by the opposition), Diouf was declared reelected with 73 percent of the vote. In the concurrent National Assembly elections, the Socialist Party took 103 seats and the opposition Senegalese Democratic Party (PDS) 17 seats.

The Senegalese armed forces (about 15,000 men, including the paramilitary gendarmerie) are a professional, disciplined organization which traditionally maintains an aloofness from politics and is respected by the population. Due to heightened tensions with Mauritania, the armed forces assumed a higher profile in 1989, e.g., in restoring order in the Dakar area under the state of emergency declared in April-May. Civilian security forces are fairly well trained and generally respect the laws they enforce; those who do not face criminal prosecution.

Senegal has a mixed economy with a substantial private sector. Since June 1983, Senegal has actively pursued a structural adjustment program, with the support of the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank, and major bilateral donors, designed to liberalize the economy and stimulate economic growth. There is concern, however, about the short-term political impact of the austerity reforms, particularly in Dakar, where high unemployment and deteriorating social conditions contributed to marked opposition gains and civil unrest in the 1988 elections. The economy remained fragile at the end of 1989.

Events in 1989 subjected Senegal's democracy and its generally creditable human rights record to its most sustained test since independence, particularly the mass violence against ethnic Maurs origin. Strikes plagued the education sector during the first quarter of the year. The leader of the Senegalese Democratic Party, Secretary General Abdoulaye Wade, returned to Senegal in March after a long absence abroad. Wade, who disputes the legality of President Diouf's reelection in 1988, held party rallies and called for mass antigovernment demonstrations, which were promptly banned by the authorities. Some demonstrators turned out anyway, and street violence and vandalism broke out in Dakar on March 14 and on National Day, April 4. Subsequently, touched off by a fatal border shooting on April 9, there were several waves of violence directed against Mauritanians resident in Senegal and the declaration of a state of emergency. The violence resulted in scores dead in Senegal (and a similar rash of killings in Mauritania), the destruction of the greater part of Senegal's Maur-dominated small retail trade sector, a massive repatriation of populations by both countries, and both armies arrayed along their 500-mile border. Differences with other neighbors--a maritime border dispute with Guinea-Bissau and the breakup of the confederation with The Gambia--further raised the political temperature.

SENEGAL

RESPECT FOR HUMAN RIGHTS

Section 1 Respect for the Integrity of the Person, Including Freedom from:

a. Political and Other Extrajudicial Killing

There was no evidence of any killings for political motives. However, government actions in both Senegal and Mauritania fueled the April unrest involving citizens of both countries. Senegalese authorities were slow to comprehend the scale of the violence directed against Maurs and their property. There has been no definitive public accounting of casualties, but senior Ministry of Justice officials estimated the number of dead at 80. Order was not restored until the army was called out, and a state of emergency imposed in the Dakar region.

b. Disappearance

There were no reports of politically motivated disappearances.

c. Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman, or Degrading Treatment or Punishment

Government and police officials in Senegal generally respect the section of the Criminal Code prohibiting physical abuse. Nevertheless, there are periodic accounts of occasional abuse (including beatings and denial of food, water, and clothing to prisoners) under interrogation during the period of custody ("guard a vue") between arrest and appearance before a magistrate.

Amnesty International (AI), with the consent of the Government, sent a team to Senegal in October to discuss charges of alleged torture of suspected Casamance separatists during the period 1982-1988. The Government refused to accept the delegation's suggestion that a special committee be established to investigate human rights abuses, saying that existing legal mechanisms were sufficient. The Government, however, publicly reaffirmed its opposition to torture and promised to improve oversight procedures in the courts and security forces to prevent abuses. AI's 1989 report notes that ill-treatment of prisoners by police in 1988 resulted in at least one death.

d. Arbitrary Arrest, Detention, or Exile

The constitutional prohibition against arbitrary arrest or detention is generally respected in practice. The Senegalese legal system is patterned after the French. A person suspected of a crime may be legally held without charge for 48 hours after arrest and may be held up to 72 hours if ordered by a public prosecutor. In fact this period of detention, during which the prisoner has no access to family or attorney, may be much longer.

Temporary detention or custody is permitted when civil authorities determine that there is a threat of civil disturbance or that a person is a threat to himself or others. Temporary custody is valid for a maximum period of 6 months, but it may be renewed for additional 6-month periods if the investigating magistrate certifies that this time is required to complete the investigation. There is no limit to the number of times it may be renewed. These laws are generally respected by law enforcement officials, and charges

are formally and clearly drawn. By law, every person has access to legal counsel during every step of the legal process from the time his case is presented to a magistrate. Persons with means will have private attorneys. The court may appoint public defenders for indigents charged with felonies; in practice, however this rarely happens. The Association of Young Senegalese Attorneys provides free legal counsel to accused indigents.

During the state of emergency from April 28 to May 19, the Government had the authority to order house arrests and administrative internment for up to 2 months and to hold suspects for up to 8 days before charging them. However, with the exception of the curfew, no extraordinary powers were exercised, and such arrests as were made (all for crimes against property) were under the ordinary penal code.

However, the Government used its detention and other legal powers broadly in 1988 and 1989 to strike at critics, including journalists (see Section 2.a.). In judicial cases which are tried before the State Security Court, 23 persons remained under indictment for membership in an illegal organization, the Movement of Democratic Forces of the Casamance (MFDC), which advocates violent means to secure the independence of Senegal's southernmost region. All but five of these were free at year's end while awaiting trial; those still incarcerated are also accused of plotting against the security of the state. The five were arrested after having tried to solicit money and arms from Guinea-Bissau security officials to support guerrilla operations in the Casamance. Three men remained in detention awaiting trial for involvement in the fire-bombing of an official vehicle, allegedly for political motives, in December 1988. Seven members of the opposition PDS also were arrested, on the basis of an anonymous tip, in connection with the same incident. They soon were granted provisional liberty, and, although charges had not been formally dropped, the case appeared to be inactive at the end of 1989. In addition, 11 Maurs were being held at the end of 1989 for alleged espionage.

e. Denial of Fair Public Trial

Senegal has an active and well-trained judiciary, which is constitutionally independent of the executive, the legislature, and the armed forces. Court officials are lawyers who have completed a number of years of required apprenticeship. Trials are public, and defendants have the right to a defense attorney from the time the case is presented before an examining magistrate. Ordinary courts are presided over by a panel of judges which in criminal cases includes a panel of citizens as a form of jury. Magistrates are appointed by decree and in principle are not subject to government supervision; however, low pay, poor working conditions, and family and political ties may make magistrates vulnerable to outside pressures.

There are four categories of special courts: the High Court of Justice, the State Security Court, the Court for the Repression of the Unlawful Accumulation of Wealth, and the military courts. The High Court of Justice, created for the sole purpose of trying high government officials for treason or malfeasance, has never met. The State Security Court, consisting of a judge and two assessors, has jurisdiction over cases involving politically motivated crimes. The "illegal enrichment" Court, which has only judged three cases since it

was created in 1981, is not presently active. The military court system has jurisdiction over offenses committed by members of the armed forces during peacetime. Civilians may not be tried by military courts.

There were no reports of political prisoners in Senegal at the end of 1989. However, a military Board of Enquiry in April 1989 disciplined three officers, including the former armed forces chief of staff, for allegedly plotting a coup during the turbulent events surrounding the 1988 elections. Early in 1989, the Government indicated its intention to appeal a judge's decision of November 1988 in Louga which dismissed charges against members of two opposition political parties for unlawful assembly and inciting a riot; no appeal, however, had been entered at the end of 1989.

f. Arbitrary Interference with Privacy, Family, Home, or Correspondence

There is relatively little government interference in the private lives of Senegalese citizens, particularly in rural areas. There are constitutional safeguards against arbitrary invasion of the home. Search warrants are required and under normal circumstances may be issued only by judges and in accordance with procedures established by law. In practice, searches without warrants occasionally take place. There is no evident pattern of monitoring the private written or oral communications of Senegalese citizens. There are reports, however, of active supporters of the political opposition being subject to wiretaps, unusually close scrutiny of tax records, and other forms of petty harassment.

Section 2 Respect for Civil Liberties, Including:

a. Freedom of Speech and Press

Freedom of speech and press is protected in the Constitution and is generally respected in practice. Subject to restrictions relating to public order, a wide variety of political expression is possible. While Senegal's only daily newspaper is controlled by the ruling Socialist Party, there are many regularly published magazines and newspapers reflecting a broad range of political opinion from conservative to Marxist. The independent press often breaks stories ignored by the establishment daily newspaper (e.g., the trial of military officers accused of planning a coup d'etat) and the opposition newspaper, Sopi, regularly denounces the Government as illegitimate and calls on President Diouf to resign.

Notwithstanding this diversity, the official media (including the government-controlled radio, which is by far the most important medium of news dissemination), are subject to controls over their news coverage. Activities of the ruling party are always covered, while the opposition parties are mentioned only occasionally and selectively, e.g., communiques are not read in their entirety, or certain factions are excluded in favor of others less hostile to the Government. More equitable access to the media emerged as a principal opposition demand during and after the 1988 elections. The National Assembly in October enacted a new law, which must still be implemented by decree, regulating access to television and radio by "regularly constituted political parties." It is not yet clear whether the law will result in more transmision and air time to the Government's opponents.

SENEGAL

There are laws prohibiting personal attacks against the Chief of State or the institutions of the Republic, and a 1965 law prohibiting the dissemination of "false news" has been criticized for having a possible chilling effect on journalists. The Government used these legal powers in 1989. A university professor, who wrote an article in an independent newspaper on January 5, 1989, on the Senegalese police strike of 1987, was threatened with charges that he tried to discredit the institutions of Senegal; the case was dropped by the end of the same month. The publication director for Sopi was convicted on December 16 of spreading false news and discrediting public institutions. The charges arose from an article he had written in the spring claiming that agents of the Government had falsified the 1988 presidential election returns--certified as authentic by the Supreme Court--and publishing what were purported to be the true figures, showing PDS candidate Wade a clear winner. The director appealed the verdict and was released from custody until the appeal is heard. On September 12 and 13, four Sopi journalists and the chairman of the PDS parliamentary delegation were indicted for a series of Sopi articles attacking a senior member of the Government and exposing alleged equipment deficiencies in the armed forces. Immediately after charges were filed, all were granted conditional liberty (requiring the accused to keep the authorities advised of their whereabouts). The cases were still pending at year's end.

Publishers are required to register with the Central Court prior to starting publication, but such registrations are routinely approved. Publications, including foreign publications, are almost never censored or banned in Senegal. An exception occurred in February 1989 when Salman Rushdie's "Satanic Verses" was banned. The action came after the Organization of Islamic Conference (of which Senegal is a member) called on member states to ban the book and all others published by Viking/Penguin until the publishers withdrew the offending title. However, no other Viking/Penguin books were withdrawn, and foreign periodicals reporting on the Rushdie affair and quoting the book's controversial passages continued to circulate freely in Senegal.

In general, academic freedom is enjoyed by the schools and Senegal's sole university.

A National Commission reviews all films prior to public showing. Movies deemed offensive to Senegalese moral sensibilities are censored or banned. No instances are known of films being banned because of offensive political content.

b. Freedom of Peaceful Assembly and Association

In general, Senegalese freely exercise their constitutional rights of assembly and association. However, prior authorization for public demonstrations is required, and demonstrations or protest meetings against government policies are closely monitored by security services. The Ministry of Interior refused permission for the opposition PDS to hold mass demonstrations in Dakar March 14 and April 4 (National Day) on the grounds that public safety was threatened by the vandalism and random street violence which increasingly has accompanied such political demonstrations. Senegalese wishing to form associations must register them with the Ministry of Interior (except for business-related associations, which are registered with the Ministry of Commerce). By law and in practice, the Ministry is obliged to register such groups, so

long as the objectives of association are clearly stated and not in violation of the law.

For a discussion of freedom of association as it applies to labor unions, see Section 6.a.

c. Freedom of Religion

Senegal is constitutionally a secular state, and freedom of religion is a legal right which exists in practice. Islam is the religion of over 85 percent of the population, but no attempt has been made by the Government to introduce Shari'a (Islamic) law. Other religions, the major one of which is Roman Catholicism, are freely practiced. Missionary activity is permitted, and foreign Protestant missionaries are active in several regions of the country. Conversion is permitted, and there is no discrimination against minority religions. Adherence to a particular religion confers no official advantage or disadvantage in civil, political, economic, military, or other sectors. Both Islamic and Christian organizations publish periodicals. Koranic and Catholic schools exist alongside the public schools system, and the Mouride Brotherhood is constructing an Islamic University in its headquarters city of Touba.

d. Freedom of Movement Within the Country, Foreign Travel, Emigration, and Repatriation

The Constitution states that all citizens have the right to move and establish themselves freely anywhere in Senegal, a right that is respected in practice. Exit visas are not required for travel outside the country. There is no restriction on emigration, and repatriates are not officially disadvantaged on return to Senegal. A nighttime curfew was imposed throughout the Dakar region during the state of emergency which lasted from April 28 to May 19. A Senegalese citizen by birth may not have his citizenship annulled for any reason. A naturalized citizen may have his citizenship revoked if it is proved in a court of law that he obtained his citizenship fraudulently or--if he has been a citizen less than 15 years--if convicted of a crime.

Although Senegal's tolerant political and economic environment has attracted Africans from other countries, Senegal has hosted few official refugees. According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), there were less than 200 registered and assisted refugees in the country at the beginning of 1989. However, in 1989 the refugee/displaced person situation changed dramatically with the ethnic violence which erupted in Senegal and Mauritania in April and May. Unable initially to protect Maurs resident in Senegal, the Government--in agreement with the Government of Mauritania--began repatriating many of them by air and by land; and eventually some 100,000 persons were returned to Mauritania. Many of these lost their property in Senegal, and some were stripped of personal belongings and papers by Senegalese authorities--allegedly in retaliation for similar treatment dealt to Senegalese departing Mauritania. Prior to the unrest, some estimates placed the number of Mauritanians living in Senegal at 300,000, although no firm figures are available.

These civil disturbances in turn led to a massive return to Senegal of persons from Mauritania. By September approximately 90,000 Senegalese, mostly skilled and

semiskilled workers and fishermen, had been repatriated from Mauritania. In addition, some 44,000 black African Mauritanian citizens and 16,000 Senegalese uprooted from their traditional homes on the right (Mauritania) bank of the Senegal River had taken refuge in Senegal. Some had been forcibly expelled from Mauritania, while others fled a climate of intimidation and violence. Almost overnight, Senegal faced a massive and unanticipated refugee/displaced persons problem, but by the end of 1989 most of the 90,000 repatriated Senegalese had been absorbed into their families and communities throughout the country, although their integration into Senegal's fragile economy remained a serious problem. In contrast, the 60,000 Mauritanian and Senegalese uprooted from their communities in Mauritania have been sheltered in refugee camps and in Senegalese villages near the river frontier. For the most part the Senegalese, working with the UNHCR and other international agencies, organizations, and donor countries, have been generous in assisting these refugee/displaced persons, many of whom have strong ethnic and family ties in Senegal.

There were no known instances of refugees or displaced persons being refused entry into Senegal or forcibly returned to Mauritania. However, the Government admitted that some Senegalese citizens might have been inadvertently transferred to Mauritania during the exchange of populations and has said Senegal will take back any citizens who wish to return. According to UNHCR estimates, up to 22,000 Senegalesa citizens may have been among those transferred to Mauritania. The Mauritanian Government claims that upwards of 200,000 of its citizens are still being held hostage in Senegal. The Senegalese Government disputes this charge. However, a mechanism for identifying such Mauritanians in Senegal and Senegalese among the displaced population in Mauritania and facilitating their return to Mauritania and Senegal had not been established by year's end.

Section 3 Respect for Political Rights: The Right of Citizens to Change Their Government

Senegal is a functioning multiparty democracy, but the legitimacy of its 1988 election results was sharply challenged by the opposition. The Socialist Party has dominated Senegalese political life since independence. Presidential and legislative elections, with universal suffrage for all citizens over 21, are held concurrently every 5 years.

Following the 1988 elections, opposition leaders claimed widespread fraud and continued in 1989 to dispute publicly the legitimacy of the announced results. Sixteen of the 17 elected opposition deputies did take their seats in the National Assembly and participated in parliamentary activities. Opposition leaders demand electoral reforms, including a tightening of the voter identification card system and protection of the secret ballot. Legislation along these lines was enacted by the National Assembly in October. The new electoral law failed to address the opposition demand for a neutral national commission to supervise elections, a task now carried out by civil servants and the Supreme Court.

SENEGAL

Section 4 Governmental Attitude Regarding International and Nongovernmental Investigation of Alleged Violations of Human Rights

The Government allows human rights groups such as Amnesty International to investigate allegations concerning human rights abuses in Senegal and responds to requests for information about those allegations. The ICRC, with the approval of the Government, opened an office in Dakar in May 1989 with a mandate to monitor prisoner conditions.

Senegal is a leader among African countries in the promotion of international standards for human rights practices. For example, it sponsored the African Charter on Human and People's Rights of the OAU and was a founder of the OAU's African Human Rights Commission in 1987. Its officials serve in a variety of pertinent bodies; its representative was chairman of the U.N. Human Rights Commission in 1988 and played a key role in organizing and leading a mission to investigate the human rights situation in Cuba. Dakar is the headquarters of several institutions which foster human rights and democratic pluralism in Africa and frequently is the site of conferences related to human rights.

Section 5 Discrimination Based on Race, Sex, Religion, Language, or Social Status

While officially there is no discrimination in Senegal based on race, religion, or language, the country is predominantly Muslim, and Islamic customs, including polygamy and the rules of inheritance, generally prevail, especially in the rural areas. Article 7 of the Constitution states, "men and women shall be equal in law." The status of women has steadily improved under government encouragement and through increased educational opportunities. Modifications of the family code adopted by the National Assembly in 1988 reinforced women's rights to divorce, alimony, and child support.

However, Islamic and Senegalese customs persist, and women are still confined largely to traditional roles, notably in the large subsistence agricultural sector. Women usually marry young (the majority by age 16), average about 7 live births, and die relatively young. Sixty-seven percent of women aged 40 to 45 live in polygamous unions.

Violence against women, usually wife beating, occurs, particularly in rural areas, but there are no accurate statistics, and the extent of the problem is not known. Police do not normally intervene in domestic disputes, and women are reluctant to go outside the family for redress. Infibulation, the most severe and dangerous form of female genital mutilation, frequently is performed on girls aged 10 to 14 in the Fleuve, Casamance, and Senegal Oriental regions; the practice is deeply rooted in ethnic tradition and cuts across religious lines. There are no laws or regulations prohibiting this practice. However, the Minister of Social Development (a female dentist) has taken a personal interest in the issue and has formed a group to study the practice and warn village women of its hazards. The semiofficial daily newspaper Le Soleil carried a lengthy World Health Organization report in December about the harmful physical and psychologicial effects of excision and infibulation.

SENEGAL

Section 6 Worker Rights

a. The Right of Association

A minimum of seven people, each having worked within their profession for at least 1 year, are free to form a union by submitting a list of members and a charter to the Ministry of Interior. A union can be disbanded by the Ministry if the union's activities deviate from the charter. Even though they represent a small percentage of the overall population, unions wield a significant amount of political influence, primarily because of their ability to disrupt essential services.

At least 75 percent of the working population are engaged in rural activities such as cultivation, herding, and fishing. There are approximately 323,000 workers in the formal wage sector, of which approximately 100,000 belong to various unions. Of these, approximately 70,000 workers in 61 unions belong to the National Confederation of Senegalese Workers (CNTS), which is affiliated with the ruling Socialist Party. Although the CNTS was established in 1969 as the sole trade union central, with affiliation to the sole legal party, political and trade union pluralism was reestablished after 1976. The principal rival organization to the CNTS is known as the Democratic Union of Senegalese Workers (UDTS) and various independent unions exist in health, education, and transportation sectors.

While ostensibly an independent umbrella organization, the CNTS has supported government policies. During 1989 strains developed in this relationship, and the CNTS leadership has publicly opposed government policies on structural adjustment, modification of the labor code, and liberalization of the economy. Although CNTS remains Senegal's largest and most powerful labor confederation, it faces increased competition from independent unions.

Unions have the right to strike, and 1988/1989 saw strikes by the teacher/professor, electrical, banking, and health worker unions which were resolved in bargaining with the Government.

Senegalese unions are active in international labor organizations. The CNTS and the small Union of Free Workers of Senegal (UTLS) belong to the Organization of African Trade Union Unity. The UTLS is also listed as an affiliate of the communist-controlled WFTU.

For several years the Committee of Experts of the International Labor Organization has requested an amendment to the Senegalese law covering seditious associations to ensure that the Government cannot dissolve a trade union which it regards as disrupting the constitutional order by unlawful means.

b. The Right to Organize and Bargain Collectively

Senegalese unions have the right by law to organize and to bargain collectively, and these rights are protected in practice. There are no known instances of workers being forcibly discouraged from exercising these rights. In recent years, as the economic situation worsened and factories and businesses closed down, collective bargaining has succeeded in several instances in ensuring extended benefits for laid-off workers, e.g., the airline workers' union in negotiations with the Government and the new management of Air Afrique

respectively. The CNTS has been a major force in pressuring employers and the Government to establish regulations and guidelines for the well-being of workers. The Government will intervene in labor/management disputes when requested and plays a mediation and arbitration role in private and state-enterprise sectors.

An export free zone exists in Dakar into which goods may be imported for manufacture and reexported without payment of duty. Senegalese labor laws apply uniformly throughout the country, including in this zone.

c. Prohibition of Forced or Compulsory Labor

There were no reports of forced labor in Senegal, which is prohibited by law.

d. Minimum Age for Employment of Children

The minimum age for employment in Senegal is 16 for apprenticeships and 18 for all other types of work. These restrictions are closely monitored and strictly enforced within the formal wage sector, that is, the area of the economy over which the Government can exercise some supervision such as state agencies, large private enterprises, or farmers gathered into cooperatives. On the other hand, children under 16 are employed in the traditional sector, and minimum age and other workplace regulations on family farms in rural areas and in small, privately owned businesses are not seriously enforced.

e. Acceptable Conditions of Work

The CNTS has been very successful, within the formal economic sector, in obtaining acceptable conditions of work, including standard workweeks (40 to 48 hours per week for most professions), holiday/annual leave benefits (usually 1 month per year), and a variety of health and safety regulations. These regulations are incorporated into the Labor Code approved by the National Assembly and are supervised by Ministry of Labor inspectors. Enforcement, however, appears to be uneven, especially outside the formal wage sector. Recent CNTS efforts have concentrated on raising the minimum wage, currently approximately $0.82 an hour, which, according to Senegalese unions, is not considered sufficient to maintain a decent standard of living. Workers must frequently supplement incomes through second jobs and reliance on the extended family.

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REPORT OF THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL
ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF RACIAL
DISCRIMINATION
CRIME PREVENTION AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE
ENHANCING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE
PRINCIPLE OF PERIODIC AND GENUINE
ELECTIONS
DEVELOPMENT AND STRENGTHENING OF
GOOD-NEIGHBOURLINESS BETWEEN
STATES

SECURITY COUNCIL
Forty-fifth year

Letter dated 5 April 1990 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of Israel to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General

I have been instructed by my Government to draw your attention to the attached extract from Country Reports on Human Rights Practices For 1989, published by the Department of State of the United States of America, which contains information on the situation concerning human rights in Iraq. I have underlined passages of special relevance (see annex).

In view of the importance of this information, I have the honour to request that the text of the present letter and its annex be issued as an official document of the General Assembly, under items 12, 94, 103, 113 and 142 of the preliminary list, and of the Security Council.

(Signed) Johanan BEIN
Ambassador
Acting Permanent Representative

* A/45/50.

ANNEX*

101st Congress
2d Session

JOINT COMMITTEE PRINT

COUNTRY REPORTS ON HUMAN RIGHTS PRACTICES FOR 1989

REPORT

SUBMITTED TO THE

COMMITTEE ON FOREIGN AFFAIRS
HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

AND THE

COMMITTEE ON FOREIGN RELATIONS
U.S. SENATE

BY THE

DEPARTMENT OF STATE

IN ACCORDANCE WITH SECTIONS 116(d) AND 502B(b) OF THE FOREIGN ASSISTANCE ACT OF 1961, AS AMENDED

FEBRUARY 1990

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* Underlining has been added by the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of Israel to the United Nations.

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IRAQ

Iraq is in effect a one-party state governed by the Arab Ba'ath Socialist Party (ABSP) through a Revolutionary Command Council (RCC) which has both executive and legislative authority under the provisional Constitution of 1968. Saddam Hussein holds decisive power as President of the Republic, Chairman of the RCC, and Secretary-General of the Regional Command of the ABSP. Two other small parties are essentially support groups for the Government. In 1989 the Government announced its intention to adopt a multiparty system enshrined in a new constitution. Elections for the National Assembly--which has few powers--were held April 1. A draft constitution which would reportedly allow a multiparty system was completed in 1989 and is expected to be put to a referendum in early 1990. It remains to be seen, however, whether this will dilute the monopoly of power held by Saddam Hussein and the ABSP. Iraq's population comprises many disparate groups, most notably Shi'a and Sunni Muslim Arabs, Kurds, Turcomans, and various Christian sects, predominantly Assyrians and Chaldeans.

Iraq's military is large and well trained, and parts of it, notably the Fursan, or Kurdish tribal levies, have responsibility for security within the Kurdish autonomous region. The National Police is responsible for civil order.

The Government exerts a high degree of control over the economy, dominated by the petroleum sector, and owns all major industries. The Government has been carrying out a program of divestiture and privatization in agriculture, tourism, services, and light industry, and is trying to attract investor capital and expertise in the operation of the economy. However, close government regulation of economic activity is expected to continue.

Iraq's human rights record remained abysmal in 1989. Effective opposition to government policy is stifled; the intelligence services engage in extensive surveillance and utilize extralegal means, including torture and summary execution, to deal with antiregime activity. The civil rights of Iraqi citizens continue to be sharply limited, and Iraqis do not have the right to change their government. The freedoms of speech and press and of assembly and association are virtually nonexistent. Other important human rights problems include continuing disappearances and arbitrary detentions, lack of fair trial, widespread interference with privacy, excessive use of force against Kurdish civilians, and an almost total lack of worker rights. In addition to the repressive domestic controls that predate the war with Iran, tight wartime controls, including travel restrictions, remain in effect despite the August 1988 cease-fire with Iran.

An armed Kurdish insurgency continued in 1989, but at a reduced level. Although there were no allegations that the Government used chemical weapons against Kurdish civilians in 1989, as it did in 1988, in its efforts to crush the rebellion, it continued to violate the human rights of elements of the Kurdish population. The Government announced in June that in its campaign to suppress the rebellion it has pursued a program since 1987 of establishing a depopulated security zone along the full length of Iraq's borders with Iran and Turkey. Under this program, the Government has destroyed villages within a 30-kilometer-wide zone and relocated approximately 500,000 Kurdish and Assyrian inhabitants into more easily controlled and protected towns,

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cities, and newly constructed settlements in traditional Kurdish areas.

RESPECT FOR HUMAN RIGHTS

Section 1 Respect for the Integrity of the Person, Including Freedom from:

a. Political and Other Extrajudicial Killing

For years execution has been an established Iraqi method for dealing with perceived political and military opponents of the government, including, but not limited to, members of the outlawed Da'wa organization (an Iran-supported fundamentalist Shi'a Muslim group that has engaged in acts of international terrorism). In some cases, a family only learns that one of its members has been executed when the security services return the body and require the family to pay a fine.

Amnesty International (AI), in its presentation before the U.N. Subcommission on the Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities in August, stated that it had received allegations that some 80 army deserters were executed in December 1988 and charged that the Government executed 11 of its Kurdish opponents in March and April 1989.

In its February report, "Iraq: Children: Innocent Victims of Political Repression," AI stated that it receives allegations of hundreds of executions in Iraq each year. AI cited the case of 29 Kurdish children and youths allegedly executed in January 1987. In addition, AI, in its 1989 Report covering 1988, cited allegations that hundreds of civilians, including women and children, were executed at Tanjaro Military Garrison, Sulaimaniya province. Independent information to confirm the allegations cited in AI reports is not available.

b. Disappearance

In the February report, AI asserted that thousands of people arrested over the years by Iraqi security or intelligence forces reportedly have "disappeared" while in detention, with many feared executed. In its August presentation to the U.N. Subcommission, AI reported the disappearance in mid-April of Mulla Muhammad Dalgayi, described as the imam of Qal'at Diza, who was among delegates from Kurdistan who reportedly met with government officials to appeal against forced settlement of the Kurds at Qal'at Diza. He was reportedly arrested in Baghdad and has since disappeared. An Assyrian organization based in the United States charged in March that the whereabouts of 33 Assyrians, who took advantage of the amnesty issued by the Government and returned to Iraq from Iran and Turkey, were unknown.

c. Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman, or Degrading Treatment or Punishment

The Constitution prohibits torture and prescribes stiff punishment for it, but it is clear that both physical and psychological torture are used by the authorities, especially the security police. Given the rigid chain of command within the Government and the security services, torture could not be practiced without the knowledge or authorization of senior officials.

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Emigre groups and former prisoners assert that persons detained by the security police for political or security-related matters are frequently tortured and mistreated. Treatment is reported to be worst immediately following arrest and during the period of interrogation and investigation, which can last for months. Torture and brutal treatment are not limited to political cases.

Security-related offenses are broadly defined and include such routine criminal matters as currency violations.

In its 1989 Report, AI stated that the routine torture and ill-treatment of prisoners continued to be widely reported. It said the victims included detainees below the age of 18 who were reportedly beaten, whipped, given electric shocks, and deprived of food. The Government categorically denied any use of torture against children as an official policy or as a practice, and stated its readiness to consider fully any individual allegation with a view to bringing perpetrators to justice. Impartial observers have so far been unable to look into these allegations.

d. Arbitrary Arrest, Detention, or Exile

While the Constitution and legal code provide for the rights of citizens and place checks on police powers in such areas as arrest, detention, imprisonment, and search, these provisions have virtually no weight in political or national security cases, although they are generally respected in ordinary criminal cases. Security police not only make arbitrary arrests but also secretly detain suspects, whose fate sometimes becomes known only after they have been executed. Security charges have included espionage, treason, and conspiracy against Iraq, often in collaboration with unnamed foreign enemies.

The relocation of 500,000 Kurdish villagers to other areas of Kurdistan since 1987 may be considered a form of internal exile. The Government declared in June 1989 that it was creating an uninhabited security zone to ensure the safety and security of citizens in the border regions (who were subjected to shelling and military operations during the war with Iran) and to provide better services to the villagers.

Although the Government has ceased expelling Iraqis of supposed Iranian descent, most of the few remaining Iranians have been imprisoned or live under the fear of deportation or incarceration. Spouses of Iraqis of Iranian origin are required to obtain a divorce or suffer the same consequences. Moreover, other Iraqis, whose grandparents are shown not to be of Iraqi origin, are subject to arbitrary detention and deportation.

With regard to forced or compulsory labor, see Section 6.c.

e. Denial of Fair Public Trial

Iraq's legal system provides for investigation by police and then by an inquiry judge who may refer a case to the courts or dismiss it. Judges try criminal cases; there are no juries. Convictions may be appealed to the Court of Appeal and then to the Court of Cassation, the supreme court. There are no Shari'a courts per se in Iraq; however, family courts administer Shari'a law modified by Iraqi custom.

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IRAQ

Trials of ordinary cases are held in civil, crimin , and religious courts and are open. Defendants are ent led to counsel--at government expense if the defendant is indigent. Charges and evidence are available for review by the lawyer. Appellate courts hear cases not under the jurisdiction of the Revolutionary Courts.

In contrast to ordinary cases, security cases are handled by the Revolutionary Courts, which usually hold closed trials. Security cases include espionage, treason, smuggling, currency exchange violations and drug trafficking. The right of defense in such courts is said to be severely restricted. The "special courts" constituted by the RCC for specific incidents, such as the reported conspiracy against the regime in 1979, are also closed. These special tribunals are apparently exempt from constitutional safeguards of defendants' rights; defendants are held incommunicado, and confessions extracted by torture are admissible. Appeals can be taken only to the chairman of the RCC. However, the utility of this appeal is questionable, since there are reports that executions take place shortly after trial.

Political dissent in Iraq is taken by the authorities to encompass a wide range of activities and, in an environment where public acknowledgement of arrest or imprisonment is rare, it is extremely difficult to estimate the number of political prisoners. In its 1989 Report, AI stated that "thousands" of political prisoners continued to be arbitrarily arrested and detained, especially members of prohibited political parties, Army deserters, and draft resisters. Relatives, including children of suspects, are said to be held as hostages to compel confessions.

f. Arbitrary Interference with Privacy, Family, Home, or Correspondence

The Constitution provides protections for the inviolability of the home, and strong cultural values reinforce these protections. Police must obtain a search warrant before entering the home of a criminal suspect. However, warrants are not required for the arrest of security suspects. Although most arrests occur outside the home, there have been reports of forced entry and arrest by the security police, particularly of suspected members of the outlawed Da'wa organization.

Although the Constitution provides for the confidentiality of mail and telegraphic and telephone correspondence, many Iraqis believe that the monitoring of telephones is a common practice and that all mail is subject to review by censors. The security services and Ba'ath Party maintain pervasive networks of informers. The Government maintains a close watch against Iranian attempts to exploit dissatisfaction among Iraqi Shi'a, who adhere to the branch of Islam prevalent in Iran.

g. Use of Excessive Force and Violations of Humanitarian Law in Internal Conflicts

Elements of Iraq's Kurdish population have engaged in armed struggle with all governments of Iraq periodically since the 1920's. The outbreak of the Iran-Iraq war in 1980 sparked a new antigovernment insurgency by Kurdish elements, many of whom fought with or aided Iran during the war. From 1981 to 1989, the Government's efforts to crush the rebellion militarily resulted in approximately 8,000 deaths, many of

them civilians killed indiscriminately by chemical weapons in 1988.

Although the fighting was at a reduced level in 1989, Kurdish military operations continued, as did government measures to contain them. Kurdish rebels continued to announce their hostility towards the central Government. On August 29, 1989, the leader of one group of insurgents stated to the press in Geneva that his group would target foreign interests in Iraq supporting the Iraqi regime. At year's end, the cycle of Kurdish rebellion and government repression remained unresolved.

Section 2 Respect for Civil Liberties, Including:

a. Freedom of Speech and Press

The freedoms of speech and press are not respected. The Constitution prohibits "any act aimed at undermining the national unity of the people, provoking racial, sectarian, and regional bigotry, or violating gains and achievements of the country." The Government views political dissent as a threat to its security and strictly controls speech and all information media. All publications are subject to censorship. The Government and the Ba'ath Party own and operate the press, radio, and television. The media do not criticize the Government, and news reporting is strongly biased. There is no presentation of opposition viewpoints.

Few foreign periodicals reach Iraq and those that do may be censored. Western newspapers are not sold. Foreign visitors' magazines, newspapers, cassettes, cameras, and video cassettes may be confiscated at the airport. To control the dissemination of political leaflets, word processors and computers must be registered. Failure to register is a criminal offense. Iraqis no longer need to register their typewriters or photocopiers, but foreigners in Iraq must do so. Taking photographs of military installations, government buildings, or areas near sensitive locations is forbidden and punishable by imprisonment. Journalists and photographers visiting Iraq at the invitation of the Government are required to present film taken in Iraq for inspection by the authorities.

b. Freedom of Peaceful Assembly and Association

These freedoms are severely limited. Public meetings may only be organized under the auspices of the Government or the Ba'ath Party. Association for nonreligious purposes and demonstrations without government approval have met with severe repression. Professional organizations are subject to control by the Ba'ath Party Central Vocational Bureau.

For a discussion of freedom of association as it applies to labor unions, see Section 6.a.

c. Freedom of Religion

Iraq is an ethnically and religiously diverse society. Since its rise to power in 1968, the Ba'ath Government, while carefully controlling religious groups, has enforced tolerance of religious diversity, seeking to submerge religious differences in the promotion of secular nationalism. A 1981 law gave the Ministry of Endowments and Religious Affairs the authority to promulgate laws and regulations governing places

of worship, appointment of clergy, publication of religious literature, and participation in religious councils and meetings. Muslim religious leaders operate under close government supervision, are considered government employees, and receive their salaries through the Government. The Government administers the principal Muslim shrines and mosques and has provided allotments to them and to churches for maintenance and refurbishing. There are no penalties under Iraqi law for changing one's religion, although there is a social stigma for Muslims who convert to another faith.

While the Government has assumed much greater authority in Islamic religious affairs since 1981, it has been less intrusive into the religious affairs of Iraq's Christians, who number more than 500,000 and constitute nearly 4 percent of the population. Their freedom of worship in churches of established denominations is legally protected, but they are not permitted to proselytize or to hold meetings outside church premises. Convents and monasteries exist, and some new churches have been constructed, in some cases with government financial support. The Jewish community has decreased from 150,000 following World War II to under 400. There is no evidence of recent persecution. One synagogue in Baghdad still functions.

d. Freedom of Movement Within the Country, Foreign Travel, Emigration, and Repatriation

Iraqis are generally free to travel within the country and to change their residences or workplaces. However, they are likely to be constrained by social, cultural, and religious traditions which define the areas occupied by the various ethnic and religious groups. Sensitive border and other security areas are off limits. There are police checkpoints on highways and outside major towns, but Iraqis and nondiplomatic foreigners travel freely in nonrestricted areas.

The Government's harsh campaign to suppress Kurdish rebels, involving mass relocations of Kurdish villagers, has nullified the right of hundreds of thousands of Kurds to choose their place of residence. Since the Government began its program of forced relocation in 1987, an estimated 500,000 people have been uprooted. Since traditional Kurdish culture has been deeply embedded in the rural village, the forced removals and razing of villages has had a destructive impact on the lives of some half a million Kurds.

Most foreigners who remain in the country for more than 30 days and all Iraqis must obtain exit permission. Travel has been severely limited since September 1986, when the Government imposed tight restrictions on currency exchange. These restrictions were eased somewhat in 1989, but the most an Iraqi may exchange is 1,000 dinars ($3,220). Because of the drain on the economy caused by the war and reconstruction, permission to travel abroad is restricted to a few categories of Iraqis, including officials, businessmen, government-approved students, and persons needing medical treatment. In 1989 the Government eased restrictions to permit one parent to visit his or her offspring who is studying or working abroad.

While permission for medical treatment abroad may be granted, permission to transfer hard currency abroad to pay for it may not be. In cases of those desiring medical treatment in the United States, the Government now requires a bond to be posted by an American friend or relative with the Iraqi embassy in

IRAQ

Washington before exit permission is granted. The minimum amount of this bond is $10,000. The Government sometimes limits the countries an Iraqi traveler may visit and, should the traveler visit a nonauthorized country, a small fine may be levied upon his return. Iraqis who have residences abroad may depart the country, provided they originally left before the war began. A married woman must have the permission of her husband to travel abroad.

The Government can require a prospective traveler to post a substantial bond to assure his return. The RCC decreed in 1987 that Iraqi students abroad who refuse to return to Iraq must reimburse the Government for all education received in Iraq or abroad at government expense. The decree is applicable retroactively to students who have refused to return since May 16, 1983, the date the Government began requiring employees leaving government jobs before 20 years of service to reimburse the State for the cost of their education. Amounts due can be recovered by confiscation; nonpayment may result in imprisonment. Each student must provide a guarantor before traveling abroad. This guarantor and the student's parents may be held liable if the student fails to return.

There is no specific ban on emigration or special restrictions for members of minority groups; however, emigration is discouraged. For the past several years, almost all of those given permission to emigrate have been Christian Iraqi wives of former Iraqi citizens now living abroad as citizens of another country. Prospective emigrants have had travel permission delayed and have been harassed. Many emigrants leave behind substantial property because of the difficulty of exporting assets. Currency exchange violations are considered national security offenses, and penalties can be severe.

Non-Iraqi spouses of Iraqi citizens who have resided in Iraq for 5 years are required to take Iraqi nationality or leave Iraq. Many people, including several Americans, have thus been obliged to accept Iraqi citizenship and are therefore subject to the present travel restrictions. In March 1984, an order by the RCC reduced the residency period before naturalization to 1 year for the spouses of Iraqi citizens employed in government offices. The Iraqi spouse faces penalties for noncompliance, including loss of job, a fine of approximately $10,000, and repayment of the costs of education. Iraq does not recognize the concept of dual nationality, and many Iraqi "dual nationals," especially the children of an Iraqi father and a mother of non-Iraqi birth, have been denied permission to leave Iraq to visit the country of their other nationality.

In recent years, the Government has instituted special programs to encourage repatriation of qualified professionals. Aliens of Iraqi origin can apply for a document permitting them to enter and exit from Iraq without a visa.

Other persons of Iraqi origin are permitted to return, including many persons who were admitted to other countries as refugees. A number of such people, especially Assyrian Christians, have returned on temporary visits. They are free to come and go, within the limits of the present travel restrictions, since they are not considered to have violated Iraqi laws. However, those who emigrated only after the beginning of the Iran-Iraq war, including several U.S.

permanent resident aliens, have been unable to depart from Iraq after returning. In September and November 1988 and in February and March 1989, the Government announced amnesties for Kurds who fled the country for any reason. Approximately 2,000 have voluntarily returned from refugee camps in Turkey.

Section 3 Respect for Political Rights: The Right of Citizens to Change Their Government

Iraqi citizens do not have the ability peacefully to change their government. President Saddam Hussein and the RCC rule Iraq through the Ba'ath Party. It reportedly has some 1.5 million adherents, representing about 9 percent of the population.

There are two other small legal political parties, both Kurdish. They and the Ba'ath Party constitute the Patriotic and Progressive National Front, essentially a vehicle of support for the Government. Members of the military or security services may engage in political activities only within the Ba'ath Party. Association with the party is not required for appointment to senior government positions or military ranks or election to the National Assembly, but is normally necessary to attain political influence. Opposition groups, including various Kurdish groups and splinter parties, are severely repressed. The Communist Party was removed from the National Front and declared illegal in 1979. The Da'wa organization, a violent Shi'ite group, is still proscribed, and its members are subject to incarceration and execution, as are members of other parties believed to be cooperating with Iran. Plans the Government announced in 1988 to permit legal formation of opposition parties were not implemented in 1989.

General elections were held for the 250-seat National Assembly in April. Though in theory possessing a wide range of official duties, the Assembly exercises little real authority. The majority of the more than 900 candidates were independents, although all supported current government policies. The elections by secret ballot were more open than in the past, and some high-ranking Baath party officials were defeated.

The biennial elections for the Legislative Assembly of the Kurdish Autonomous Region were held in September 1989. All 174 candidates, from the three legal parties and independents, had to satisfy the same requirements as National Assembly candidates. The Legislative Assembly does not exercise meaningful authority.

In October 1989, an Experts Commission finished drafting a new Constitution to replace the Provisional Constitution of 1970. Iraqi officials assert that the new Constitution will provide more guarantees of human rights. However, the new Constitution has not yet been made public pending approval by President Saddam Hussein and the RCC.

Section 4 Governmental Attitude Regarding International and Nongovernmental Investigation of Alleged Violations of Human Rights

The Government allows one human rights group to operate inside Iraq, but this is largely under government control. The Government has rarely cooperated with private foreign groups.

or international organizations in investigating events or practices in Iraq.

The Government denies charges that it violates human rights, and claims that the information on which AI and other human rights groups base their charges comes from pro-Iranian and Kurdish Iraqi exile groups in London and Paris. In its 1989 report on children in Iraq, AI cited several instances in which Iraqi authorities had commented on AI reports or responded to AI inquiries, but in each case these authorities had defended the Government's actions as justifiable or denied the accuracy of AI's information. A resolution before the U.N. Subcommission on the Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities in August 1989, recommending that the U.N. Commission on Human Rights study the human rights situation in Iraq, was narrowly defeated.

Iraq does cooperate with the International Committee of the Red Cross in efforts to resettle Iranian civilian refugees in third countries, and the U.N. High Commissioner for Refugees has had a permanent representative in Iraq since April 1988 who registers Iranian refugees and works for their resettlement.

Section 5 Discrimination Based on Race, Sex, Religion, Language, or Social Status

The Ba'ath Party is committed to the equality of the sexes, and a series of laws since it came to power in 1968 has steadily improved the status of women. There have been laws to protect women from exploitation in the workplace; grant subsidized maternity leave; permit women to join the regular army, popular army, and police forces; and equalize women's rights in divorce, land ownership, taxation, suffrage, and election to the National Assembly. In the 1970's, the Government imposed legal penalties on families that opposed sending their women to literacy schools, and on men who were seen harassing women. While the application of these laws has resulted in significant tangible improvements for women, a number of problems remain. Married women may still travel abroad only with the permission of their husbands. School enrollment of females has been increasing in recent years, reaching 45 percent in elementary schools and 36 percent in secondary schools in 1985-86.

Women represent about 47 percent of agricultural workers and about 25 percent of the total work force. The war accelerated the Government's drive to elevate the status of women, and it appears to have significantly reduced, if not removed, barriers to the acceptance of women in traditional male roles. Women are increasingly employed as architects, construction engineers, oil engineers, air traffic controllers, and factory and farm managers. Their role in the armed forces is limited to the medical field.

Violence against women, such as wife beating and rape, is known to occur but little is known about its extent. Such abuse is customarily dealt with within the tightly knit Iraqi family structure because of the value attached to personal privacy in this conservative society. Consequently, there is no public discussion of the subject, and there are no official statistics. Excessive violence against women would be grounds for divorce and criminal charges, but suits brought on these charges in Iraq are believed to be rare.

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The use of minority languages is unrestricted. Kurdish is an official language used in schools and media in Kurdish areas. Turcomans publish in their dialect of Turkish, and Christians often use Aramaic as well as Arabic.

The Shi'a, who make up roughly 55 percent of the population, have historically been economically, politically, and socially disadvantaged throughout much of the Middle East. The Government has a declared policy to raise their living standards and equalize opportunities for their economic and professional advancement. For four centuries, political power in Iraq has been concentrated in the hands of the Sunni minority. Sunni Arabs, who comprise 20 to 25 percent of Iraq's population, dominate the RCC, the Regional Command of the Ba'ath Party, and the Cabinet. However, increasing numbers of Shi'as hold prominent positions, and the economic status of the Shi'a has improved through intensive government investment in the economic and educational infrastructure of southern Iraq.

Although Christians sometimes allege discrimination in education and jobs, adherence to their religion has not prevented many from obtaining wealth and professional advancement. The Deputy Prime Minister and Foreign Minister, a Chaldean Christian, has represented Iraq at meetings of the foreign ministers of the Organization of the Islamic Conference. Other Christians hold important official and private positions.

Citizens considered to be of Iranian origin carry special identification. They are often precluded from desirable employment and their advancement may be impeded. Many "Iranian" families have been in Iraq for generations. The two holiest shrines of Shi'a Islam, the prevalent sect in Iran, are located in Iraq. For generations Iranians have come to Najaf and Karbala on pilgrimage or to study in the seminaries, and many settled there. Some "Iranians" say their forebears were not from Iran but claimed Iranian nationality to evade Ottoman military conscription.

Section 6 Worker Rights

a. The Right of Association

Trade unions independent of government control do not exist in Iraq. Under the trade union organization law of June 2, 1987, a new single trade union structure was prescribed for organized labor. Workers in private and mixed enterprises and in cooperatives--but not public employees or workers in state enterprises--have the right to join a local union committee. The committees form trade unions which in turn are part of provincial trade union federations. At the top is an umbrella organization, the Iraqi General Federation of Trade Unions, which is organically linked to the Ba'ath Party and required to promote party principles and policies among union members. The General Federation is affiliated with the International Confederation of Arab Trade Unions and the Communist-controlled World Federation of Trade Unions. It is also active in the tripartite Arab Labor Organization, headquartered in Baghdad.

Although workers legally have the right to strike, after providing notice to the Labor Ministry, no such strikes were reported in 1989. There was a 1-day wildcat walkout by Egyptian workers protesting excessive work hours.

IRAQ

b. The Right to Organize and Bargain Collectively

The right to bargain collectively is not recognized. Salaries for public sector workers (i.e. the bulk of the employed) are set by the Government. Wages in the private sector are set by the employers or negotiated individually with workers.

Iraq, which has ratified International Labor Organization (ILO) Convention 98 on the Right to Organize and Bargain Collectively, was criticized by the ILO's Committee of Experts (COE) in 1989 for the fact that its new labor code of 1987 fails to provide workers with protection against antiunion discrimination. The COE also expressed regret that the 1987 Act on trade union organizations did not provide for collective bargaining.

There are no export processing zones in Iraq.

c. Prohibition of Forced or Compulsory Labor

Although compulsory labor is prohibited by law, during and shortly after the war with Iran the Popular Army, the militia of the Ba'ath Party, employed press-gang methods to draft recruits. However, these activities ceased in November 1988, and the Popular Army was for the most part demobilized in 1989.

ILO supervisory bodies again in 1989 expressed concern that the Penal Code permits the punishment of civil servants with imprisonment, including compulsory prison labor, for breaches of labor discipline, which include resigning from one's job. A November cabinet meeting, reported in the government-directed press, quoted the remark of a minister that resignation from government jobs should be free, confirming that heretofore civil servants have had to buy their way out of government service.

d. Minimum Age for Employment of Children

Children are frequently encouraged to work as necessary to support the family, but the employment of children under age 14 is forbidden in all enterprises other than small-scale family enterprises. Children between the ages of 14 and 18 who are employed are protected by law: they work fewer hours and have more privileges than adult workers.

e. Acceptable Conditions of Work

The workweek in urban areas is 6 days, 7 to 8 hours a day, for workers in the private and mixed sectors. These provisions do not apply to agricultural workers whose workweek and hours of work per day can vary according to individual employer-employee agreements. Hours for government employees are set by the head of the ministry for which the employee works. Many government employees routinely work longer than 8 hours a day, some of them as much as 12 hours per day.

Occupational safety programs are in effect in state-run enterprises, and inspectors make visits irregularly to private establishments. Enforcement varies widely. A government decree to extend occupational safety and health protection was issued and subsequently withdrawn in December 1988, reportedly resulting in the dismissal of the Labor Minister.

A special problem arose after the Government decided in June to reduce drastically the amount of hard currency foreign

workers could remit. It is widely believed that the Government took this measure to "encourage" foreign workers to leave the country, thus freeing jobs for demobilized Iraqi soldiers. Workers not on contract were particularly hard hit. Most of the over 2 million Egyptian workers in Iraq were manual laborers. When they learned they would be able to transfer only $32 per month, they began to leave Iraq in droves, an estimated 2,000 per day by air alone. Egyptian and other foreign workers in Iraq have claimed that some Iraqi employers forced them to work 12 to 15 hours a day for 8 hours' pay or refused to pay wages. The Government has admitted that Iraqi banks have been slow to pay remittances. Egyptian workers are in fact receiving their savings a year after leaving Iraq.

UNITED NATIONS

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GENERAL ASSEMBLY
Forty-fifth session
Item 123 of the preliminary list*

PROGRAMME PLANNING

Application of evaluation findings in programme design, delivery and policy directives

Report of the Secretary-General

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* A/45/50.

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I. INTRODUCTION

1. The present report is the second of its kind to be prepared on a biennial basis in accordance with the Regulations and Rules Governing Programme Planning, the Programme Aspects of the Budget, the Monitoring of Implementation and the Methods of Evaluation, hereinafter referred to as the Regulations and Rules (General Assembly resolutions 37/234 of 21 December 1982, 38/227 A and B of 20 December 1983 and 42/215 of 21 December 1987). Regulations 7.3 and 7.4 require (a) the reflection of evaluation findings from in-depth and self-evaluation studies in programme design, delivery and policy directives, and (b) a summary of the conclusions of the Secretary-General on all evaluation studies at the same time as the Assembly considers the text of the medium-term plan. The first report was presented through the Committee for Programme and Co-ordination (CPC) to the General Assembly at its forty-third session (A/43/179).

2. The purpose of the present report is to discuss the lessons learned from the conduct of evaluations and to facilitate the deliberations by the Committee for Programme and Co-ordination and the General Assembly on the proposed medium-term plan for the period 1992-1997 by presenting a summary of the evaluation findings which have implications for the formulation of the new medium-term plan, as well as those that have implications for implementation of the plan.

3. A list of citations to evaluation reports and recommendations of CPC thereon, as well as those self-evaluation reports that have been submitted to specialized intergovernmental bodies, is given in annex I. The schedule of self-evaluation studies that have been or will be conducted by programme managers appears in annex II.

4. The status of evaluation in the United Nations was also discussed in the report, some conclusions were drawn from the experience reviewed and recommendations were made for the improvement of the function in the future.

II. STATUS OF EVALUATION IN THE UNITED NATIONS

A. Secretariat-wide directives

5. In order to comply with the Regulations and Rules, instructions issued for the preparation of the new medium-term plan included a request for information from programme managers on the implementation of self-evaluation studies, the scheduling of which had been reported to the Committee for Programme and Co-ordination and the General Assembly by the Secretary-General (A/44/233, annex I). Information was received from programme managers on recommendations made from evaluation findings; on methodological or other problems encountered; on the reaction, if any, of relevant intergovernmental bodies to self-evaluation; and on implications for the preparation of the new medium-term plan.

B. Self-evaluation

6. The status of the conduct of self-evaluation studies is presented in annex II. At the time of writing, self-evaluation was conducted on a total of 91 subprogrammes of 137 planned for the two biennia 1986-1989 (see table 1 below and annex II). Of those 91 self-evaluation studies, the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) undertook 22 and the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) undertook 27, both bodies having an evaluation unit that is responsible for monitoring the conduct of self-evaluation and for providing guidance and feedback.

Table 1. Self-evaluation studies

	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989	
		Scheduled	Completed
Political, legal and humanitarian sectors	74	9	6
Public information	3	2	-
Economic and social	334	116	77
Common services	61	10	8
Total	472	137	91

7. As was also indicated in the first report on the application of evaluation findings, the quality of the self-evaluation reports continues to vary in approach, content and structure. Where there was a formalized capacity to oversee the conduct of self-evaluation (UNCTAD, UNEP, some regional commissions), the self-evaluation was generally better conducted in terms of data collection, analysis and critical assessment; the reports were better structured and recommendations were made to address the lessons learned.

8. For some programmes, evaluation reports have been submitted on a regular basis to the specialized intergovernmental bodies concerned, such as the Trade and Development Board (UNCTAD), the Joint Advisory Group on the International Trade Centre UNCTAD/GATT, the Governing Council of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), and the Economic Commission for Africa. Other intergovernmental bodies have requested that ad hoc evaluations be conducted in a specific area of the programme. For example, an evaluation of the dissemination of international statistics was conducted by the United Nations Statistical Office at the request of the Statistical Commission at its twenty-third session (E/CN.3/1987/1).

9. For technical co-operation projects, programme managers have been following guidelines provided by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). The World Food Council, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees and the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA) follow their own guidelines for the evaluation of their projects, which are funded solely from extrabudgetary sources.

10. The importance of self-evaluation is twofold. Not only is it a management tool for programme managers to make a critical analysis of their work by measuring accomplishments against stated objectives and to effect changes if necessary, but findings from self-evaluation studies can also serve as "building blocks" for in-depth evaluations. For example, if programme managers periodically conduct self-evaluations, a pattern can be seen in terms of assessment by end-users, thereby providing more reliable data than those gathered from a discrete survey during an in-depth evaluation. Findings from self-evaluation studies were used for the Department of Technical Co-operation for Development component of the development issues and policies programme (E/AC.51/1989/4/Add.1, paras. 52-54) and will be used in the in-depth evaluation of the science and technology programme (see progress report before the Committee for consideration (E/AC.51/1990/4)).

11. In addition to soliciting views from end-users on the effectiveness of their services and other outputs, programme managers have been encouraged to broaden their data collection for evaluation purposes by including reviews of the professional literature on the role of the United Nations in their field, and reviews of press coverage, in order to gain some insight into interest in the work of the United Nations by outside groups and their assessment thereof. It was noted, however, that such references often did not distinguish between the role of the Secretariat and the role of Governments. Programme managers were also encouraged to search in computerized databases through the libraries for citations of their work, as an indicator of the use by the academic community of data collected and research undertaken by the Secretariat.

12. In their reports on the self-evaluation studies, programme managers have drawn attention to a number of problems encountered:

(a) Obtaining adequate feedback from users or beneficiaries of the programme was difficult, the response rate to questionnaires was low and there were insufficient resources to conduct extensive interviews with a reasonably large sample of users;

(b) Insufficient indicators or "success criteria";

(c) Because operational activities involve both Governments and the funding agency, it was difficult to isolate the Secretariat role in determining the effectiveness and impact of such activities;

(d) Time and resources were not available for conducting self-evaluation studies;

(e) More training on the conduct of evaluation was required;

(f) Insufficient feedback from management on self-evaluation studies.

13. In spite of those difficulties, programme managers who have attempted to conduct evaluation studies have recognized the importance of systematically gathering evidence on the relevance and effectiveness of their programme, from which to draw conclusions concerning improvement, modification, reorientation or change in their activities. The development of indicators for the purpose of measuring accomplishments against objectives was recognized as important for the collection of relevant data for evaluation purposes. In an effort to help programme managers to develop suitable indicators, some aspects of how to measure the accomplishments of United Nations programmes were discussed in the United Nations Evaluation Newsletter. 1/

C. Self-evaluation training workshops

14. The Central Evaluation Unit, in collaboration with the Training Service of the Office of Human Resources Management, has developed a series of training workshops on self-evaluation. Three training workshops were held at Headquarters during 1989, and one each was held in Bangkok, Geneva and Vienna during the month of February 1990. Three additional workshops will be scheduled during the current biennium for Addis Ababa, Baghdad and Santiago, Chile, at the respective regional commissions.

15. The participants in the workshops have been mainly programme managers who were responsible for implementing the subprogrammes that were proposed for self-evaluation during the biennia 1988-1989 and 1990-1991 (see annex II).

16. While the focus of the training workshops was on techniques for the conduct of self-evaluation, the linkage between evaluation and the programme planning cycle was emphasized to draw attention to the fact that evaluation findings should be fed back into planning, programming, implementation and monitoring. The training workshops also brought to the attention of participants basic terminology, concepts and procedures for effective programme management and the need for efforts to be more results-oriented.

17. In anticipation of the difficulties that programme managers were likely to encounter when preparing the new medium-term plan, particularly in the translation of intergovernmental concerns and user needs into viable programmes for action to be undertaken by the Secretariat, the training workshops held by the Central Evaluation Unit have discussed the elements of a good programme design, not only for evaluation purposes, but also for effective implementation, monitoring and feedback into the whole programme planning process.

18. Through the training on self-evaluation, participants have become more aware of the linkage between the plan and the formulation of their programme budgets and, given the need to measure accomplishments against objectives, in some cases it became apparent that there was a need to redefine the objectives expressed in the plan to be more realistically related to the activities actually undertaken to address specific problems.

D. Role of intergovernmental bodies

19. In the preparation of proposals for the new medium-term plan, two programmes under major programme I, maintenance of peace and security, disarmament and decolonization, were reviewed by their specialized intergovernmental bodies, namely the one for elimination of apartheid and the other for peaceful uses of outer space.

20. Proposals for major programmes II, Codification and development of international law, and III, Economic and social affairs, were not reviewed by specialized intergovernmental bodies. All but one programme under major programmes IV, International economic co-operation for development, and V, International co-operation for social development, have been reviewed by their specialized intergovernmental bodies. The exception is the programme for global development issues and policies.

21. All programmes of the regional commissions under major programme VI, Regional co-operation for economic and social development, have been reviewed by their intergovernmental bodies, as was the programme on promotion and protection of human rights under major programme VII, Human rights, fundamental freedoms and humanitarian affairs. Major programme VIII, Public information, is scheduled to be reviewed by the Committee on Information in April 1990. Proposals for conference and library services under major programme IX, Conference services, was reviewed by the Committee on Conferences.

22. For a list of the in-depth evaluation studies or triennial reviews that were presented to the relevant intergovernmental bodies, see annex I. Because of the priority given to considering substantive issues, those bodies did not discuss the reports in any detail nor did they recommend any action thereon.

III. APPLICATION OF EVALUATION FINDINGS

23. The list of citations to evaluation reports and recommendations of CPC thereon, as well as self-evaluation reports submitted to specialized intergovernmental bodies, appears in annex I. The citations are shown in the order of the programmes to appear in the proposed medium-term plan; each of the reports cited contains many conclusions and recommendations relating to the specific programme that was evaluated. As indicated in table 1 above and in annex II, of the 91 self-evaluation studies completed, 77 of them were in the economic and social fields. Lessons of general applicability to all programmes, that are pertinent to the review of the proposed new medium-term plan are given in this chapter.

A. Programme design

24. Programme design occurs at the level of the medium-term plan, the programme budget and, for operational activities, at the project level. To design a programme, consideration must be given not only to the subject and issues on which action is required, but also to how that action is to be taken and what is to be

accomplished as a result of that action. A well designed plan, programme or project facilitates not only implementation, but also monitoring and evaluation of the activities undertaken for accomplishing the specific objectives.

1. Medium-term plan

(a) General design

25. It was pointed out in the Secretary-General's first report on the application of evaluation findings in programme design, delivery and policy directives, that,

> "while evaluation is not the primary reason or justification for good programme design, it is useful, at the design stage, to set the foundation for facilitating the process of finding out how successful the programme is at achieving its objectives and whether it remains relevant". (A/43/179, para. 47).

26. In designing the medium-term plan, programme managers were required to translate legislative mandates into a forward-looking instrument, a policy framework for a programme of activities to be undertaken by the Secretary-General. Although the issues and problems to be addressed were generally well understood, their translation into a programmatic instrument was not well effected. Some of the difficulties could be attributed to the inexperience of programme managers with basic concepts and procedures of programme planning. The evaluation studies also noted that the poor design of programmes made it difficult to measure accomplishments against objectives.

27. The recurrent problems with the current medium-term plan, highlighted by both in-depth and self-evaluations, were:

(a) The plan was expressed in terms that did not clearly and specifically reflect what the Secretariat could accomplish within the plan period;

(b) Objectives were expressed mostly in terms of strategies or activities, rather than the results to be accomplished by those activities;

(c) Linkages between problems, strategies and objectives were weak.

28. Some findings have pointed to the need to broaden the approach to issues. For example, in the evaluation of the population programme, it was recommended that cultural factors should be included in demographic analyses (E/AC.51/1986/9). In other evaluations, a more focused approach was recommended: in environmental education activities, for example, UNEP has found that training workshops could be significantly improved if the course content focused on issues that were more relevant at the local level. 2/

(b) Dissemination strategy

29. A recurrent evaluation finding in the design of programmes in the medium-term plan, which have components for data collection, research and analysis activities, has been the absence of a dissemination strategy for reaching end-users. Evaluation studies have generally found that research studies and other publications, though of high quality in many cases, have not been accompanied by a well formulated strategy for dissemination, thereby diminishing the significance of the quality and usefulness of outputs and reducing their impact. Nevertheless, the objectives of many research programmes were, technically, accomplished, since objectives were often expressed in terms of activities (for example, to monitor, to analyse, to collect data, to study etc.) rather than in terms of results to be expected from such collection of data, monitoring and analyses. Articulation of intended results would necessarily require a dissemination strategy for identification of end-users, targeting the anticipated groups of users, developing new formats and presentation of information materials to meet their specific needs, and ensuring feedback on the extent to which the targeted audiences have found the materials useful.

(c) Other issues

30. Other findings that had implications for programme design at the medium-term plan and programme budget levels have included the need:

(a) To strengthen the integration of research activities with technical co-operation activities (see evaluation reports on population (E/AC.51/1986/9), development issues and policies (E/AC.51/1989/4 and Add.1 and 2) and trade and development (TD/B/1145, TD/B/1184 and TD/B/1225));

(b) To harmonize concepts, consistency and comparability of data (most economic and social programmes);

(c) To improve quality and timeliness of data (most programmes).

The application of those findings would require that attention be given to improving co-ordination and collaboration, improving information flows between research and operational activities, and meeting targets.

31. UNCTAD, for example, has taken steps

> "To set up a project monitoring system in order to improve the flows of information on project preparation, implementation and evaluation. ... The ... interlinkage between normative and operational activities will also enable the secretariat to use its technical co-operation arm as a source of feedback for the identification of areas for improvement and issues for further research and analysis, as well as for intergovernmental consideration ... This will be of particular relevance to the project on trade policies in the 1990s." (TD/B/1225, paras. 25, 28 and 29).

32. Programmes on which an in-depth evaluation has been conducted are listed in annex I. The in-depth evaluation of the human settlements programme (E/AC.51/1990/2), and the progress reports on the in-depth evaluations of the programmes on disarmament and on science and technology for development, and on the development issues and policies programme of the Economic Commission for Africa, are also before the Committee for consideration (E/AC.51/1990/3, 4 and 5 respectively).

2. Programme budgets

33. At the level of programme budgets, which translate the plan's strategies into workable units of activities and outputs, findings from evaluation studies have drawn attention to the weak linkages between programme budgets and the medium-term plan, particularly with regard to the choice of activities for accomplishing objectives.

3. Projects

34. For operational activities, design also occurs at the project level in accordance with guidelines issued by UNDP and other funding agencies. Evaluation studies by UNDP have frequently drawn attention to the importance of good design in order to facilitate and improve implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

35. For the design of projects, evaluation findings have pointed out the importance of understanding not only the needs, but also the technical capacities of the recipient country, a multisectoral approach, linkage with national development policies, plans and actions, support of technical co-operation among developing countries and follow-up activities to promote sustainability.

B. Programme delivery

36. The inclusion of the above-mentioned concerns in the design of programmes and projects in turn implies that certain actions need to be taken at the level of programme delivery. The majority of recommendations emanating from evaluation findings, whether from in-depth evaluations conducted by the Central Evaluation Unit or from self-evaluations conducted by programme managers, have addressed ways to improve the management and implementation of programmes, including, in some cases, the internal reorganization of units to respond more effectively to the various responsibilities involved.

37. There was a general recognition of the need to stimulate dialogue and interaction between the Secretariat and government officials, non-governmental organizations, experts and others, in order to meet country needs more efficiently and effectively. There was also a recognition of the lack of awareness by Governments, non-governmental organizations, experts and the public in general, of the different kinds and extent of output and services that are provided by the Secretariat. Some specific concerns are discussed below.

(a) Dissemination

38. It was generally found that, as far as reports and publications were concerned, resources were allocated for the completion of a publication, but little, if any, were allocated for activities concerned with the dissemination of that publication. Substantive offices that do not have staff members specifically assigned to dissemination have indicated their concern that the time and resources required to deal with that aspect of the programme, important as it is, have encroached upon the time and resources allocated for activities related to data collection, research and analysis, and technical co-operation.

39. Nevertheless, efforts were made to deal with that important aspect of their activities and recommendations, such as the following, were made to improve dissemination and distribution:

(a) Greater attention should be given to identifying and reaching end-users and redisseminators;

(b) In general, each publication or technical service should be tailored to meet the needs of different end-users, who may be government officials, policy analysts, the public or the media. For example, the same research results could and, in many cases, should be presented in press briefings, in special documents which give executive summaries emphasizing policy aspects, and in professional journals, as vehicles for reaching different groups of end-users. The key choice for some technical services or publications may be between issuing printed matter and items such as diskettes, magnetic tapes, optical discs, video tapes etc.;

(c) Mailing lists should be updated and categorized more systematically and routinely;

(d) Greater attention should be given to publicizing United Nations services by, for example, the preparation and distribution of catalogues of publications, displaying publications at specific locations within regional United Nations buildings, at government offices and at book fairs.

(b) Technological innovations

40. The widespread introduction and rapid spread of microcomputer hardware and software technologies have not only facilitated the collection, processing, analysis, production and dissemination of data and information but have also resulted in new formats in which information can be made available and in the increase in volume and rate of information flow. The ability and capacity to handle such information effectively have become problems that had to be addressed at the national, regional and global levels. The strengthening of activities in the area of communication and information dissemination, printing and distribution, as well as training in the use of technological innovations, would appear to be crucial at the present stage of the work of the United Nations.

(c) Training

41. References in evaluation findings to training were at two levels: the training of United Nations staff and the training activities in technical co-operation projects.

42. Many programme managers pointed out the need for staff to be trained not only in the use of technological innovations, but also in the application of United Nations rules, regulations and procedures (substantive and administrative work, editing, translation). Training was also considered necessary to keep substantive staff abreast of the issues that fall within their work programmes.

43. With regard to projects with training activities, it was found that audio-visual materials needed upgrading, topics were sometimes not relevant for the participants, and selection criteria for trainees were sometimes inadequate. For example, UNEP, in its Evaluation Report, 1988, has found that some of its training courses have at times been organized "in an ad hoc manner" and consequently did "not respond to the needs of developing countries or [did] not act as an adequate support measure to the UNEP programme". 3/ UNEP has therefore decided to refine its training policy with precisely defined objectives and has made efforts to select trainees according to strict criteria and to aim its training at a critical number of personnel for the new skills to be applied and transferred more effectively.

(d) Factors beyond the control of programme managers

44. A number of factors affecting the efficiency and effectiveness of substantive programmes were raised in many of the self-evaluation studies, factors which were considered beyond the control of programme managers. These included:

(a) Delays in recruitment of staff;

(b) Delays in editing, translation, printing and distribution of publications resulting for the most part from conflicts and priority demands placed on limited resources for the processing of documentation submitted to intergovernmental bodies;

(c) Inflexibility of administrative procedures, particularly for field projects, thereby inhibiting a more timely response to field needs.

(e) Resources

45. The question of adequate resources was raised frequently and was addressed not only in relation to staff requirements (and particularly protracted delays in recruitment), but also in relation to availability of modern equipment to facilitate work, the need for staff to be trained and, more important, to meet the requests of Governments for training, advisory missions and other services.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

46. Evaluation has still not been completely accepted as a management tool. It has not as yet, for the most part, been systematically and routinely integrated into the decision-making and management process. Nevertheless, programme managers have recognized the need to be more results-oriented and to examine the relevance, efficiency, effectiveness and impact of their activities. Those who have conducted self-evaluation studies have become much more aware of the linkage between programme planning, budgeting, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, as did the participants in the training workshops.

47. Basic terminology, concepts and procedures for programme planning and evaluation, however, have not been applied consistently or, in some cases, have not been sufficiently understood, by programme managers. The self-evaluation training workshops have attempted to familiarize programme managers with those procedures, but more training is needed. Further refinement is required for evaluation methodologies. Furthermore, lessons learned from in-depth and self-evaluations need to be applied if the findings are to serve any purpose, whether at the levels of implementation, monitoring, preparation of programme budgets or formulation of the medium-term plan. In order to reinforce the effective use of evaluation findings, intergovernmental action on the recommendations is also required.

48. In light of the above, the Committee may wish to recommend that the Secretary-General should:

(a) Make every effort to ensure that evaluation is fully integrated into the programme planning cycle, particularly by the application of evaluation findings;

(b) Intensify training in self-evaluation, as well as in other components of the programme cycle;

(c) Continue to refine evaluation methodologies;

(d) Inform specialized intergovernmental bodies of findings from in-depth evaluations and, wherever feasible, from self-evaluations, to enable those bodies to arrive at recommendations and decisions for improving programme design, implementation and results.

49. With regard to the future conduct of evaluation in general, the Committee may also wish to refer to the follow-up report of the Secretary-General on the in-depth evaluation of the disarmament programme (E/AC.51/1990/3, paras. 58-61), in which the Committee is requested to give guidance to the Secretariat on whether the intergovernmental machinery of the United Nations should also be included when an evaluation of activities undertaken by the Secretariat is being conducted.

Notes

1/ No. 3 (July 1989).

2/ See Evaluation Report, 1988 (UNEP/RG.88/2).

3/ Ibid., p. 6.

ANNEX I

Evaluations conducted or scheduled during the period 1984-1991

Programme (in the proposed medium-term plan, 1992-1997)	Progress report	CPC conclusions/ recommendations	In-depth evaluation	CPC conclusions/ recommendations	Triennial review/ follow-up	CPC conclusions/ recommendations
7. Disarmament	E/AC.51/1989/5	A/44/16, paras. 298-307				
	E/AC.51/1990/3		1991		1994	
12. Global development issues and policies - DIESA - DTCD	E/AC.51/1988/9	A/43/16, paras. 83-84	E/AC.51/1989/4, Add.1 and Add.1/Corr.1	A/44/16, paras. 287-292	1991	
13. International trade	Self-evaluation findings submitted to the Trade and Development Board: TD/B/1110, TD/B/1145, TD/B/1184, TD/B/1225; and to the Joint Advisory Group on the International Trade Centre UNCTAD/GATT: ITC/AG(XXII)/113, ITC/AG(XXIII)/117, ITC/EV/151, ITC/SEV/2.					
- transfer of technology	E/AC.51/1990/4					
14. Development finance, resource flows and external debt	Evaluation findings submitted to the Trade and Development Board: TD/B/1110, TD/B/1145, TD/B/1184, TD/B/1225.					
16. Environment	Evaluation findings submitted to the UNEP Governing Council: UNEP/RG.86/2, UNEP/RG.87/2, UNEP/RG.88/2.					
17. Science and technology	E/AC.51/1990/4		1992		1995	
18. Population	-	-	E/AC.51/1986/9 a/	A/41/38, paras. 72-79	E/AC.51/1989/3 a/	A/44/16, paras. 285-296
22. Human settlements	E/AC.51/1988/4	A/43/16, paras. 88-91	E/AC.51/1990/2		1993	
23. Transnational corporations	-	-			E/AC.51/1985/5 a/	A/35/38, paras. 743-748
24. Statistics	Evaluation findings submitted to the Statistical Commission: E/CN.3/1987/4.					
25-27 and 29. (International co-operation for social development)	1992		1994		1997	
28. Drug control	-	-	E/AC.51/1985/8 a/	A/40/38, paras. 735-742	E/AC.51/1988/5 a/	A/43/16, paras. 96-99

Programme (in the proposed medium-term plan, 1992-1997)	Progress report	CPC conclusions/ recommendations	In-depth evaluation	CPC conclusions/ recommendations	Triennial review/ follow-up	CPC conclusions/ recommendations
30. Regional co-operation for development in Africa						
- development issues and policies	E/AC.51/1988/9	A/43/16, paras. 83-84	E/AC.51/1989/4 Add.2 and Add.2/Corr.1	A/44/16, paras. 293-297	-	
	See also self-evaluation report submitted to Technical Preparatory Committee of the Whole: E/ECA/CM.15/32.				-	
- science and technology	See regional component of evaluation report listed above					
- population	"	"		; and E/ECA/CM.15/32.		
- human settlements	"	"				
- transnational corporations	"	"				
- food and agriculture	See also E/ECA/CM.15/32.					
- industrial development	"					
31. Regional co-operation for development in Asia and the Pacific						
- science and technology	See regional component of evaluation report listed above.					
- population	"	"				
- human settlements	"	"				
- transnational corporations	"	"				
32. Regional co-operation for development in Europe						
- science and technology	See regional component of evaluation report listed above.					
- human settlements	"	"				
- transnational corporations	"	"				
33-34. (ECLAC and ESCWA)						
- science and technology	See regional component of evaluation report listed above.					
- population	"	"				
- human settlements	"	"				
- transnational corporations	"	"				
35. Human rights	E/AC.51/1987/2	A/42/16, para. 241	E/AC.51/1989/2 a/	A/44/16, paras. 308-314	1992	
36. International protection of and assistance to refugees	1991		1993		1996	

Programme (in the proposed medium-term plan, 1992-1997)	Progress report	CPC conclusions/ recommendations	In-depth evaluation	CPC conclusions/ recommendations	Triennial review/ follow-up	CPC conclusions/ recommendations
38. Public information	-	-			E/AC.51/1986/10, a/ paras. 92-93 E/AC.51/1988/11 a/	A/41/38, paras. 80-95 A/43/38, paras. 92-93
43. General services - electronic support services	-	-	E/AC.51/1987/11	A/41/16, paras. 227-232	- b/	
Department of Technical Co-operation for Development	-	-			E/AC.51/1987/7 a/	A/42/16, para. 238

a/ Presented to specialized intergovernmental body.

b/ CPC decided at its twenty-ninth session not to consider a triennial review of the EDPIS in-depth evaluation.

ANNEX II

Status of self-evaluation, as at 28 February 1990, of programmes in the medium-term plan for the period 1984-1989, extended to 1991

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	Completed	1990-1991 Scheduled	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
A. Political, legal and humanitarian sectors							
1. Political and Security Council affairs activities	1. Political and Security Council affairs activities	2A/3D	4	1	1 (SP4)	2 (SP3, 4)	
	2. Activities of the Department for Disarmament Affairs	2B	5	1	1	-	1991/1994
	3. Research and the collection of information	1B	1	-	-	-	
			—	-	-	-	
			10	2	2	2	
2. Special political affairs, special political questions and special mandates	1. Special political affairs	1B/2A-D/ 2BD	3	-	-	-	
	2. Special political questions	3	2	-	-	-	
	3. Special mandates	1B	2	-	-	-	
	Division of Economic and Social Council Affairs and Secretariat Services b/	1B	-	-	-	-	
			-	-	-	-	
	Division of General Assembly Affairs b/	1B	-	-	-	-	
			-	-	-	-	
			7	-	-	-	

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled	Completed (SP = subprogramme number)	1990-1991 Scheduled	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
3. International justice and law	1. Upholding, strengthening and unifying the rule of law in the affairs of the United Nations	26	5	-	-	1 (SP3)	
	2. International agreements	26	2	-	-	1 (SP2)	
	3. Progressive development and codification of international law	26	4			1 (SP4)	
	4. Conduct of the general legal work of the United Nations and development of specialized branches of law	26	6	-	-	1 (SP4)	
	5. Progressive harmonization and unification of the law of international trade	26	4	1 (SP3)	-	1 (SP3)	
			—	—	—	—	
			21	1	-	5	
4. Political affairs, trusteeship and decolonization (4, 5)	1. Trusteeship	3B	1			1 (SP1)	
	2. Decolonization	3B	3	1 (SP3)	-	1 (SP2)	
	3. Namibia	3C	5			1 (SP5)	
	4. Political affairs	3E	1	-	-	-	
			10	1	-	3	
5. Disaster relief	1. Disaster relief	22	4	1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	Evaluation reviews c/	
			—	—	—		
			4	1	1		
6. Human rights	1. Centre for Human Rights	23	4	2 (SP2,4)	1 (SP4)	1 (SP3)	1989/1992
			—	—	—	—	
			4	2	1	1	

.../

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled	Completed	1990-1991 Scheduled	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
				(SP = subprogramme number)			
7. International drug control	1. Division of Narcotic Drugs	20B	4	1 (SP2)	1 (SP2)	1 (SP3)	1985/1988
	2. Secretariat of the International Narcotics Control Board	20C	4	1 (SP2)	1 (SP2)	1 (SP4)	•
			—	—	—	—	
			8	2	2	2	
8. International protection and assistance to refugees	1. Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees	21	7	-	-	Evaluation reviews c/	1993/1996
	2. United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East	2A, E	3	-	-	Evaluation reviews c/	•
			—	—	—		
			10	-	-		
Subtotal, Political, legal and humanitarian sectors			74	9	6	13	
B. Public information							
9. Public information	1. Public information	27	3	2 (SP2,3)	-	1 (SP2)	1983/1986/1988
Subtotal, Public information			3	2	-	1	-
C. Economic and social sectors							
10. Development issues and policies	Central						
	Office of the Director-General for Development and International Economic Co-operation b/	5A					
	1. Global development issues and policies (Department of International Economic and Social Affairs (DIESA))	6A	6	1 (SP5)	1 (SP5)	2 (SP1, 6)	1989/1992

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Completed (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1990-1991 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
10. Development issues and policies (continued)	2. Technical co-operation in development issues and policies (Department of Technical Co-operation for Development (DTCD))	7	5	1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	1 (SP4)	1989/1992
	Regional						
	3. Development issues and policies in the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA)	13	8	4 (SP1,4,5,7)		1 (SP1)	1989/1990/1991
	4. Development issues and policies in the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE)	10	1	-	-	1 (SP1)	
	5. Development issues and policies in the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)	12	6	-	-	1 (SP4)	
	6. Development issues and policies in the Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA)	14	3	2 (SP1,2)	1 (SP1)	1 (SP3)	
	7. Development issues and policies in the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP)	11	5	2 (SP2,5)	2 (SP2,5)	3 (SP1,3,4)	
			34	10	6	13	
11. Energy	Central						
	1. Energy (DIESA)	6A	2	-		2 (SP1,2)	
	2. Energy (DTCD)	7	3	1 (SP2)	1 (SP2)	1 (SP3)	

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	1986-1989 Completed (SP = subprogramme number)	1990-1991 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
11. Energy (continued)	Regional						
	3. Energy issues/ECA	13	1	1 (SP1)	-	-	
	4. Energy issues/ECE	10	4	-	-	-	
	5. Energy issues/ECLAC	12	2	1 (SP2)	1 (SP2)	1 (SP1)	
	6. Energy issues/ESCWA	14	3	2 (SP1,2)	1 (SP2)	1 (SP3)	
	7. Energy issues/ESCAP	11	3	1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	2 (SP2,3)	
			18	6	4	7	
12. Environment	Central						
	1. Global programme (United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP))	10	10	3 (SP6,8, 10)	3 (SP6,8 10)	1 (SP5)	
	Regional						
	2. Environment in ECA	13	1	1 (SP1)	-	-	
	3. Environment in ECE	10	4	-	-	-	
	4. Environment in ECLAC	12	1	-	-	-	
	5. Environment in ESCWA	14	1	1 (SP1)	-		
	6. Environment in ESCAP	11	1	1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	-	
			18	6	3	1	
13. Food and agriculture	Central						
	1. World food issues (World Food Council)	1A.6	1	-	-	1 (SP1)	
	Regional						
	2. Food and agriculture in ECA	13	3	2 (SP1,3)	1 (SP1)	1 (SP2)	
	3. Food and agriculture in ECE	10	2	-	-	-	
	4. Food and agriculture in ECLAC	12	1	-	-	-	
	5. Food and agriculture in ECSWA	14	3	2 (SP2,1)	1 (SP2)	1 (SP2)	
	6. Food and agriculture in ESCAP	11	4	2 (SP1,2)	2 (SP1,2)	2 (SP3,4)	
			14	6	4	5	

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Completed (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1990-1991 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
14. Human settlements	Central						
	1. Global human settlements issues (United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS))	19	8	3 (SP3,4,8)	1 (SP4)	1 (SP1)	1990/1993
	Regional						
	2. Human settlements in ECA	13	2	1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	1 (SP2)	1990/1993
	3. Human settlements in ECE	10	4	-	-	-	1990/1993
	4. Human settlements in ECLAC	12	4	-			1990/1993
	5. Human settlements in ESCWA	14	4	2 (SP3,4)	-	2 (SP1,2)	1990-1993
	6. Human settlements in ESCAP	11	3	2 (SP2,3)	2 (SP2,3)	1 (SP1)	1990-1993
			25	8	4	5	
15. Industrial development	Regional						
	1. Industrial development in ECA	13	4	2 (SP1,2)	1 (SP1)	2 (SP3,4)	
	2. Industrial development in ECE	10	3	-	-	-	
	3. Industrial development in ECLAC	12	2	-	-	-	
	4. Industrial development in ESCWA	14	3	-	-	3 (SP1,2,3)	
	5. Industrial development in ESCAP	11	4	2 (SP2,3)	2 (SP2,3)	2 (SP1,4)	
			16	4	3	7	

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Completed (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1990-1991 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
16. International trade and development finance	Central						
	1. Money, finance and development - United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)	15	4	3 (SP1,2,3)	3 (SP1,2,3)	-	
	2. Commodities (UNCTAD)	15	3	2 (SP1,2)	2 (SP1,2)	-	
	3. Manufactures and semi-manufactures (UNCTAD)	15	2	2 (SP1,2)	2 (SP1,2)		
	4. Economic co-operation in developing countries (UNCTAD)	15	5	3 (SP1,3,4)	3 (SP1,3,4)	1 (SP2)	
	5. Trade among countries having different economic and social systems (UNCTAD)	15	2	-	-	-	-
	6. Least developed, land-locked and island developing countries (UNCTAD)	15	2	2 (SP1,2)	2 (SP1,2)	-	
	7. Insurance (UNCTAD)	15	1	1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	-	
	8. Trade facilitation (UNCTAD)	15	1	1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	-	
	9. Trade promotion and export development (International Trade Centre)	16	9	3 (SP1,3,6)	2 (SP1,6)	1 (SP2)	

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Completed (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1990-1991 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
16. International trade and development finance (continued)	Regional						
	10. International trade and development finance in ECA	13	5	2 (SP2,3)	-	2 (SP1,4)	
	11. International trade and development finance in ECE	10	6	-	-	-	
	12. International trade and development finance in ECLAC	12	6	-	-	2 (SP1,4)	
	13. International trade and development finance in ESCWA	14	1	1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	-	
	14. International trade and development finance in ESCAP	11	5	1 (SP3)	1 (SP3)	2 (SP2,4)	
			52	21	18	8	
17. Natural resources	Central						
	1. Natural resources (DIESA)	6A	1	-	-	1 (SP1)	
	2. Natural resources (DTCD)	7	3	1 (SP3)	1 (SP3)	1 (SP1)	
	Regional						
	3. Natural resources in ECA	13	4	2 (SP1,3)	-	1 (SP2)	
	4. Natural resources in ECE	10	1	-	-	-	
	5. Natural resources in ECLAC	12	2	1 (SP3)	1 (SP3)	1 (SP1)	
	6. Natural resources in ESCWA	14	2	-	-	-	

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Completed (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1990-1991 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
17. Natural resources (continued)	7. Natural resources in ESCAP	11	3	3 (SP1,2,3)	3 (SP1,2,3)		
			—	—	—	—	
			16	7	5	4	
18. Population	Central						
	1. Analysis of world population (DIESA)	6	7	3 (SP2,5,7)	1 (SP2)	2 (SP3,6)	1986/1989
	2. Technical co-operation in population (DTCD)	7	2	1 (SP2)	1 (SP2)	1 (SP1)	1986/1989
	Regional						
	3. Population in ECA	13	3	2 (SP2,3)	1 (SP2)	1 (SP1)	1986/1989
	4. Population in ECLAC	12	3	1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	-	1986/1989
	5. Population in ESCWA	14	4	2 (SP1,2)	-	2 (SP3,4)	1986/1989
	6. Population in ESCAP	11	3	2 (SP1,2)	2 (SP1,2)	1 (SP3)	1986/1989
			22	11	6	7	
19. Public administration and finance	Central						
	1. Technical co-operation in public administration and finance (DTCD)	7	5	1 (SP1)	-	1 (SP5)	
	Regional						
	2. Public administration and finance in ECA	13	2	1 (SP2)	-	1 (SP1)	
	3. Public administration and finance in ESCWA	14	—	1 (SP1) —	- —	—	
			8	2	-	2	
20. Science and technology	Central						
	1. Science and technology for development (Centre for Science and Technology for Development (CSTD))	17	4	1 (SP1)	-	1 (SP3)	1992/1995

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations (SP = subprogramme number) 1986-1989 Scheduled	1986-1989 Completed	1990-1991 Scheduled	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
20. Science and technology (continued)	2. Transfer of technology (UNCTAD)	15	3	3 (SP1,2,3)	2 (SP1,2,3)	-	1992/1995
	Regional						
	3. Science and technology in ECA	13	3	2 (SP1,2)	-	1 (SP3)	1992/1995
	4. Science and technology in ECE	10	4	-	-	-	1992/1995
	5. Science and technology in ECLAC	12	1	-	-	-	1992/1995
	6. Science and technology in ESCWA	14	2	-	-	2 (SP1,2)	1992/1995
	7. Science and technology in ESCAP	11	3	2 (SP1,2)	2 (SP1,2)	1 (SP3)	1992/1995
			20	8	5	5	
21. Social development and humanitarian affairs	Central						
	1. Global social development issues (Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs (CSDHA))	6B	12	-	-	9	1994/1997
	Regional						
	2. Social development in ECA	13	3	1 (SP1)	-	1 (SP3)	1994/1997
	3. Social development in ECLAC	12	2	1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	-	1994/1997
	4. Social development in ESCWA	14	2	-	-	2 (SP1,2)	1994/1997
	5. Social development in ESCAP	11		1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	1 (SP2)	1994/1997
			22	3	2	13	

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Completed (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1990-1991 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
22. Statistics	Central						
	1. World statistics (DIESA)	6A	7	2 (SP2,4)	1 (SP2)	2 (SP3,6)	
	2. Technical co-operation in statistics (DTCD)	1	-	-	-		
	Regional						
	3. Statistics in ECA	13	3	2 (SP1,3)	1 (SP1)	1 (SP2)	
	4. Statistics in ECE	10	2	-	-	-	
	5. Statistics in ECLAC	12	3	-	-	-	
	6. Statistics in ESCWA	14	3	1 (SP1)	-	2 (SP2,3)	
	7. Statistics in ESCAP	11	3	1 (SP2)	1 (SP2)	2 (SP1,3)	
			22	6	3	7	
23. Transnational corporations	1. United Nations Centre on Transnational Corporations	9	3	1 (SP3)	1 (SP3)	1 (SP1)	
24. Transport, communications and tourism (14, 15, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37)	Central						
	1. Transport development (DIESA)	6	1	-	-	-	
	2. Shipping (UNCTAD)	15	5	4 (SP1,2,3,5)	4 (SP1,2,3,5)	1 (SP4)	
	Regional						
	3. Transport, communications and tourism in ECA	13	6	3 (SP1,2,6)	-	3 (SP3,4,5)	
	4. Transport, communications and tourism in ECE	10	3	-	-	3 (SP1,2,3)	
	5. Transport, communications and tourism in ECLAC	12	3	-	-	1 (SP1)	

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Completed (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1990-1991 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
24. Transport communications and tourism (continued)	6. Transport, communications and tourism in ESCWA	14	3	2 (SP1,2)	-		
	7. Transport, communications and tourism in ESCAP	11		-	-		
	Transport I		6	3 (SP2,3,6)	3 (SP2,3,6)	2 (SP4,5)	
	Transport II		5	3 (SP2,4,5)	3 (SP2,3,6)	2 (SP1,3)	
			32	15	10	12	
25. Marine affairs	Central						
	1. Law of the sea affairs	2A	4	1 (SP2)	1 (SP2)	2 (SP2,4)	-
	2. Economic and technical aspects of ocean affairs	2A	4	-	-	-	
	Regional						
	3. Marine affairs in ECA	13	2	-	-	-	
	4. Marine affairs in ECLAC	12	1	-	-	-	
	5. Marine affairs in ESCAP	11	1	1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	-	
			12	2	2	2	
Subtotal, Economic and social sectors			334	116	77	101	

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	Completed	1990-1991 Scheduled	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
D. Common services sector							
26. Programme planning, budgeting and financial services	1. Financial management and control	28B	3	-	-	-	
	2. Financial services relating to peace-keeping matters	28B	1	-	-	-	
	3. Programme planning, budgeting and monitoring	28B	4				
	4. Evaluation and management analysis of United Nations programmes	28B	1	-	-	-	
	5. Financial accounting and reporting activities	28B	3	1 (SP1)	-	-	
	6. Treasury services	28B	2	-	-	-	
			14	1	-	-	
27. Human resources	1. Programme planning and information system	28C	1	-	-	-	
	2. Staffing, placement and career services	28C	3	-	-	-	
	3. Staff administration and training	28C	4	-	-		
	4. Medical and employee assistance	28C	2	1 (SP1)	-		
	5. Review and appeals	28C	1	-	-	-	
			11	1	-	-	

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Completed (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1990-1991 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
28. General services	1. Security and safety	28D	1	-	-	-	
	2. Commercial services	28D	3	-	-	-	
	3. Technical support services	28D	4	-	-	-	
	Field services and external support	28D	-	-	-	-	-
			---	---	---	---	
			11	-	-	-	-
29. Other management and technical services	1. Internal audit	28F	1	1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	1 (SP1)	
	2. Electronic support service	28E	5	1 (SP2)	-1 (SP2)	-	1987
			6	2	2	1	
30. Conference and library services (42)	1. Editorial and official records	29B.1	3	1 (SP1)	1	-	
	2. Interpretation and meetings services	29B.1	3	1 (SP1)	1	-	
	3. Translation	29B.1	1	1 (French)	1	-	
	4. Publishing	29B.1	4	2 (SP2,3)	2	-	-
	5. Dag Hammarskjöld Library	29B.2	2	1 (SP2)	1 (SP2)	-	
	6. Conference Services, Geneva	29B.3	4	-	-	-	
	7. Library, Geneva	29B.4	1	-	-	1 (SP1)	
	8. Conference and library services, Vienna	29C	1-	-	-		
			---	---	---	---	
			19	6	6	1	

Major programme	Number and title of medium-term plan programme	Budget section	Total subprogrammes	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1986-1989 Completed (SP = subprogramme number)	Number of self-evaluations 1990-1991 Scheduled (SP = subprogramme number)	In-depth evaluations/ triennial reviews (completed or scheduled) 1985/1994 a/
31. Programme co-ordination	1. Programme co-ordination	6A	3/3	-/-	-/-	2/2 (SP1,2)	
Subtotal, Common services sector			61	10	8	4	
GRAND TOTAL			472	137	91	118	

a/ Scheduled in proposals for the 1990-1991 programme budget.

b/ Programmed in the budget, but not in the medium-term plan.

c/ System of evaluations are not related to subprogramme level.